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Topics of the Week.

Frigid Reactions.

INDIAN reactions to the statement of Lord Zetland on the Federal part of the constitution are in the main frigid and unfriendly. Except in certain circles which are always optimistic, there are few who read in it a message of cheer. *The Times of India* has done a bit of "dusting" of the statement by declaring, "It seems quite clear that both Lord Zetland and His Excellency the Viceroy are willing to discuss modifications within the framework of the Government of India Act; one of these modifications affecting the Princes obtained Lord Zetland's approval. Experience shows that the Secretary of State's speeches are more uncompromising than his real intentions and there is every reason to hope that more direct contact with the Viceroy and the Indian leaders in the next few months will smooth over some difficulties."

IT requires a vivid imagination to place such an interpretation on Lord Zetland's statement. The Secretary of State, with the usual emphasis which has marked his pronouncements on the desirability of amending the constitution, has stated "The Federal provisions of the Act were the outcome of a prolonged and exhaustive examination and discussion over a term of years and in my view there is not the least likelihood of His Majesty's Government or of Parliament being willing to consider before even Federation has come into operation any alteration in its structure". Nothing can be more emphatic and unequivocal than this citation. What the Secretary of State is prepared to do is to "listen to comments on the Federal provisions of the Act whether by the Princes or by those who speak for British India but within the framework prescribed

by Parliament". Such statements are enough to dispel all illusions about the radical amendment of the Federal part of the constitution in the immediate future. Judged in this perspective, it is amusing to read messages regarding the propaganda which Mr. Bulabhai Desai is said to have done in London for the Congress, point of view on Federation. One report states "In political circles here, it is admitted, that the material advantage of Mr. Bulabhai Desai's visit has been that the real issues are no longer obscure. Reading between the lines of statements made in private conversations by British statesmen during the week, there are indications that the British government will compel the Princes to agree to send elected representatives to the Federal legislature and that sooner than later, Downing Street might take steps to find time to reconstruct the Federal constitution in order to meet the popular wishes of India". "Statements made in private conversations" do not tally with statements in public speeches. If wishes were horses!

A Control Board.

MAULANA ABUL KALAM AZAD, member of the Congress Parliamentary Sub-Committee who was deputed by the Congress Working Committee to attend with Mr. Patel the momentous C. P. Congress Assembly Party meeting at Pachmarhi on May 24 has issued a statement denying the reports appearing in the press that a Control Board consisting of the Presidents of the three Provincial Congress Committees of C. P., Marathi, Berar and Mahakoshal has been set up to control the activities of the C. P. Ministry. We welcome the contradiction as it sets at rest doubts and misgivings in the public mind about the propriety of a Control Board. A Control Board of the kind envisaged in the speculative press reports would have been a negation of the parliamentary form of government. Under the parliamentary system, an executive is responsible only to the legislature and through it to the electorate. There is no intermediary non-parliamentary body between the executive and a legislature to control the executive.

IN the seven Congress provinces, for months past attempts have been made by Provincial Congress Committees to secure control over the ministries. The Ministries should and do generally give serious consideration to the views of Congress Committees as they are in charge of the electioneering machine in the constituencies and are supposed to be aware of the rises and falls in the temperature of public opinion. But to postulate it as a principle that a non-parliamentary party caucus should have control over a parliamentary executive not responsible to it but to a legislature amounts to the setting up of unhealthy party

traditions. After all a party caucus is elected on a narrow and partisan franchise and it is extraordinary that they should ever be allowed to control executives responsible in the ultimate degree to an electorate based on a wider and different franchise. The Parliamentary Sub-Committee have done well in adhering to the conventional parliamentary traditions in not setting up any Control Board of the kind mentioned in the press reports.

Zamindars-Industrialists Merger.

THE stake-holders of the United Provinces appear to be in a panic; the U. P. Tenancy Bill has raised the scare that Socialism is round the corner. The Maharajadiraj of Dharbanga at the Conference of the Oudh Zamindars put forward a spirited plea for unity among the zamindars obviously to resist expropriatory measures. The industrialists of the United Provinces also appear to be of the view that the time has come for a Stake-Holders Limited being established to combat "socialistic tendencies." Nobody can seriously object to landlords and industrialists forming associations of their own to safeguard their legitimate interests but one must be convinced that their interests are consistent with public welfare. The conditions of tenants in the United Provinces has been the subject of widespread complaint both in the press and the platform and any popular government worth its salt has to introduce equitable measures beneficial to the tenants. If the proposed merger of landlords and industrialists is meant to stifle such attempts, the future of the combination is not even worthy of serious consideration.

THE defeat of the National Agriculturists Party in the last Assembly elections is still fresh in public memory; the party did not lack an effective organisation or necessary finances. Behind the Party were the wealthy zamindars and industrialists of the U. P. but in spite of all the backing of influential capital, the National Agriculturists Party cut a miserable figure in the election. The same fate will overtake the present industrialists-cum-agriculturists combination, if they do not read the signs of the times aright and identify themselves with the people. The industrialists must remember that their prosperity depends on the welfare, contentment and cooperation of their workers. There is no point in their making a dead set against suggestions for the amelioration of the lot of their workers as they have done in the case of the Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Report. Nor is it paying to raise bogeys which have ceased to frighten like for example the statement of Sir Jwala Prasad Srivastava that Russian gold is flowing into India. The landlords of the U. P. must in their turn realise that their tenants have been caught in the wave of political consciousness that has swept over the country since the introduction of provincial autonomy and that it is too late to push the hands of the clock back. Though Anglo-India attaches much importance to this industrialists-cum-agriculturist combination, it is clear that the coalition will not pull any appreciable weight in the U. P. politics. It can play a healthy role if it decides to take its stand by progress and helps government to implement beneficial and ameliorative legislation. Whether it will do so remains to be seen but past history is not at all reassuring.

Civil Liberties in Bhopal.

THE Publicity Officer of the Bhopal Government has promptly contradicted the allegations made by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru regarding the suppression

of civil liberties in Bhopal. In so far as the State authorities took prompt notice of the allegations made against them and replied to them they are entitled to congratulations, but the point remains to be settled whether or not the communique issued by the Publicity Officer of the Government answers the charges brought by the Bhopal State Peoples Conference against the State regarding the suppression of civil liberties. It will be remembered that the States Peoples Conference was of the view "that no kind of political activity is permitted there and civil liberty does not exist at all. Numerous local newspapers have been suppressed and many printing presses have ceased to function because of heavy securities demanded of them. Newspapers from outside if they are suspected of exposing repression in the State are forthwith banned." The quotation is taken from Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru's statement.

THE Publicity Officer of the Bhopal Government in effect asserts that the State is scrupulously avoiding interference with the legitimate civil liberties of the people. "The Government of Bhopal with a full sense of responsibility," he declares "have no hesitation in declaring that the people of the State do enjoy complete liberty as regards association; assemblage and expression of views *within the law*, (Italics ours) but such rights and liberties do not grant license to create ill-will or bitterness among the various sections of the State subjects or to preach violence or the breaking of the law." The Publicity Officer goes on to deny the charge that political activities are not permitted in the State and points to religious political and social conferences having been held in the State as proofs of the baselessness of the allegation. We are not in position to say how far the general statements made by the Publicity Officer about the State's observance of civil liberties represent the real position in Bhopal. For one thing, it is difficult to define "within the law", an expression used by the Publicity Officer in his *communique* to which reference has been made. Even in the worst days of Ordinance Rule in British India, the claim was made for the authorities that the people enjoyed political liberties *within the law*. For a proper appreciation of the observance of civil liberties in Bhopal, it is necessary that the public should be enabled to see the legal framework of the State in so far as it affects freedom of association, assemblage and expression of opinion. It is inconceivable that a State Peoples Conference should have made wild charges against the State without those charges having any foundation in fact—the Publicity Officer's communique makes it appear that the allegations were *entirely* baseless. We support the suggestion of Mr. Nehru that the Bhopal State should permit the Civil Liberties Union to conduct an enquiry into the allegations and we hope that the State authorities would give the necessary permission for such investigation. The State authorities can rest assured that if permission for the investigation is granted, it will be looked upon by the public as a flattering testimony to the solicitude of the State for the civil liberties of its people.

The Break-down of Indo-British trade negotiations

THE return of the Lancashire delegation to England without arriving at any agreement with Indian cotton interests, naturally leads us to think about the reasons for the failure of their negotiations. It is a fact that for a very long time, British cotton interests have been trying to come to some agreement with Indian cotton interests. England and India whatever their relations may be at present have been knit close together for a very long time. It is therefore idle to suggest that these countries should have

no trade-negotiations. But what is important to bear in mind is the fact that in the conduct of such negotiations, both the countries concerned should be actuated by a policy of give and take and no desire of profiting at another's expense should colour the demands made by any one country. But the unfortunate fact is that owing to India's inferior political status, she is forced to accept agreements which are not to her best interests. The Ottawa Agreement was denounced every where in India and the Indian Legislative Assembly by a resolution demanded its termination as early as in 1936. But the Government of India has not acted according to the wishes of the Assembly. The Ottawa Agreement continued and will continue till some other agreement has been arrived at between the British and the Indian textile interests. This arrangement places the Lancashire delegates in a more fortunate position, for they know that till a more satisfactory agreement is reached, they can enjoy the advantages given to them by the Ottawa Agreement. This, to say the least, is unfair to the Indian cotton interests. If both the British and Indian Governments desire that a trade-agreement should be concluded soon, then the least that they can do is to terminate the present Ottawa Agreement, for it is only in the absence of any such agreement that both the countries will feel keenly the necessity of a satisfactory agreement.

Coming to the actual terms of the agreements, it was suggested by the Lancashire delegation that India should take 666 million yards of cotton piecegoods accompanied by a tariff reduction of 9 per cent. This, it must be remembered, is twice the number of cotton piecegoods which India is consuming under the present conditions. In return for this, the Lancashire delegation offered to take 400,000 bales of Indian raw cotton with a pledge to work for a higher figure over the period of any agreement. On the other hand, the Indian delegation offered to agree to a maximum import of 400 million yards of Lancashire piecegoods accompanied by a reduction of tariff from 20 per cent. to 15 per cent., in return for a guaranteed off-take of Indian raw cotton of 650,000 bales, the Indian export of raw cotton to England in 1937-38 being approximately 395,000 bales.

The terms of the agreement in the nature of things were not satisfactory to either of the parties. Consequently the textile negotiations had to be abandoned. But, as the negotiations are going to be started soon, all that we can urge at present is that the Ottawa agreement should be terminated forthwith to enable the parties to come to an unbiased decision.

The Cawnpore Strike.

THE Cawnpore Textile strike continues with unabated vigour though attempts are being made to prejudice the public against the strike by persistent misrepresentation. For example, the employees are said to have represented to the Government of India, according to a *United Press* message, that the strike is being financed from abroad and that the Central Government should intervene to settle the dispute between the workers and employers. There is little likelihood of the Central Government intervening to settle the dispute as the latter is a subject within the purview of the Provincial Government. It is surprising that the employers should have solicited the help of the Central Government. The U. P. Government is always there to use its good offices in the cause of industrial amity; but the employers are not likely to accept its mediation in view of the Government's attitude towards the Cawnpore Labour Inquiry Report.

LABOUR troubles in Cawnpore are not the products of an outside agency but are the result of the unwillingness of the employers to meet the legitimate demands of the workers. The textile workers in Cawnpore have brought the charge that the terms of compromise entered into last year between the employers and the workers have not been implemented. It will be remembered that in July last, as soon as the Congress accepted office in the United Provinces, there was a general strike which led to a compromise between the workers and the employers. The workers allege that certain terms of the compromise have been violated. The statement is made on their behalf that the clauses relating to the non-victimisation of active trade unionists, the re-employment of the men who went on strike and the payment of fortnightly wages have not been respected. The resentment at this alleged violation of the terms of compromise was aggravated when the employers rejected the recommendations of the Rajendraprasad Enquiry Committee. It will be seen therefore that the present strike was declared not in a moment of thoughtless excitement but because conditions provoked determined action. The workers have a good case which even wanton misrepresentation cannot destroy. The employers have a heavy responsibility; it is their duty to implement all terms of compromise to which they have put their signature and they can do much to ease the industrial situation in the U. P. by adopting a reasonable attitude towards the Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Report.

The Ludhiana Case.

AN important judgment affecting the liberties of the press has been delivered by the Magistrate of Ludhiana in the case in which Maulana Habib-ul-Rahman, President, All India Majlis Ahrar was charged with sedition. The charges against him were that he tried by speeches to bring the Government established by law into contempt and that he wanted to abet mutiny among soldiers when speaking about the Muslim point of view on the Palestine situation. The accused pleaded that he was within his rights in criticising the ministry and the Magistrate held "that the accused was within his right to bring the present Government into unpopularity, so that its ministers might lose the confidence of the legislature whose members are responsible to the electorate."

THE importance of the magisterial order lies in this that it has been held that to criticise a ministry responsible to a legislature with a view to bringing it into unpopularity does not hit Section 124 A of the Indian Penal Code. According to the literal interpretation of the section, even criticism of a ministry of such a character as to bring Government into contempt will come within the ambit of sedition. Unfortunately case law on sedition is not generally in favour of expanding the liberties of the press. For example a magistrate years ago held that criticism to the effect that the Simon Commission did not visit the villages but only cities amounted to "sedition". Another judicial authority has held that severe criticism of an official's action also amounts to sedition inasmuch as the official is a part of the Government. The Ludhiana Magistrate has laid down a progressive principle that criticism of a ministry even of a character likely to bring it into unpopularity is not sedition. Any other interpretation of the law of sedition will make healthy press criticism under a parliamentary and responsible form of government impossible.

THE U. P. TENANCY BILL.

II.

TO start with, tenants will be liable to pay rent on the present basis, but Government intend to revise the rates on a new basis within five years after the passing of the Bill, and they also intend within the next two years to reduce the rent in cases of serious hardship, for it is their conviction that rents have gone up enormously and must be brought down considerably, even before a general rent revision takes place. The future rent-rates will be based upon the rates on which tenants were admitted to holdings between the years 1896 and 1905. These years are taken as basic years "because at that period the long struggle for land by competition among tenants-at-will, leading to rents which left them a bare margin of subsistence or even less, had hardly begun; while the inclusion of prices from 1896 to 1900 for comparison will give some additional relief to tenants, as prices ruled high in these years owing to famine and scarcity." The prices of agricultural produce within recent years as compared to the prices prevailing from 1896 to 1905 will of course be an important factor in determining the new rates, but in doing so it is not the policy of Government to go earlier than 1931, when prices began to slump. Cost of cultivation and the amount of produce, it was suggested to Government, should be the main considerations governing the fixing of rent, but as these are hard to determine with any amount of precision, Government have decided that they should be among the factors to be taken into account, and the general consideration that should be kept in mind is that "any rent which in fact exceeds one-fifth of the produce in value has generally been regarded as involving hardship." Thus the Bill provides that the rent-rate officer, in determining rent, shall have regard, among other things, "to the amount of produce with a view to seeing that as far as possible no rent fixed according to the rates exceeds in amount one-fifth of the value of such produce." The general principle on which rent will be fixed will be that "the basis of the rates proposed by the rent-rate officer for hereditary tenants shall be genuine and stable rents payable without hardship over a series of years by cultivating hereditary tenants with substantial holdings." The rates for occupancy tenants in Agra will naturally be a little less than those for hereditary tenants, and the rates for occupancy tenants in Oudh will be two annas in the rupee less than those for hereditary tenants. The rates for sub-tenants and tenants of *sir* land cannot exceed those for hereditary tenants by one-third. When the rates are once determined, they will not ordinarily be revised for 20 years, that is, half the settlement period. The Bill follows closely the provisions of the Agra Tenancy Act in regard to the grounds on which rent, once determined, can be enhanced and in regard to the maximum limit of enhancement (one-fourth of the existing rent) that is permissible. Abatement of rent is also possible on converse grounds. Power is taken in the Bill to remit or suspend rents for natural calamities and also to

resettle rents for the period of a general economic calamity such as a slump in prices on lines similar to those of section 52 of the Agra Tenancy Act, 1901.

The Bill preserves all the three sanctions for the recovery of arrears of rent, viz. distraint, ejectment and civil decrees. But the first two Government propose to hedge round with safeguards against abuse. "In future distraint will only be allowed on the order of a court and only of a limited amount of the produce." The clause in regard to the latter is: "The amount of crop or products which may be distrained shall not exceed one-fourth, as nearly as may be, of the crops or products of the holding standing, gathered or deposited... at the time when a demand is made." Distraint is permissible only for arrears on account of the latest two instalments due from a tenant. As regards ejectment, the provisions made in the Bill are, to quote Government's Proposals:

If the arrears due by a tenant amount to a sum equivalent to two years' rent or more or if a decree for arrears of rent remains unsatisfied for two years from the date of such decree, the landholder may apply to the Assistant Collector (in the Bill, the *tahsildar*) to issue notice to the tenant to pay up the arrears, failing which he will be ejected.

Thereupon the court shall issue notice to the tenant that he must either contest the notice within 15 days or pay up the arrears within three months from the date of the notice, failing which the court will pass an order ejecting him from the holding, or, in the court's discretion, from part of the holding.

As the law stands at present, a tenant can be ejected from his holding for any arrear, however small. The Bill makes the sanction of ejectment available only for prolonged default. As Government explain: "It must be remembered that it is open to the landholder to recover arrears of rent by the ordinary processes applicable to the recovery of debts: attachment and decree and execution against property. But in the case of the great majority of tenants, the tenant-right represents the entire estate and source of livelihood for the tenant. He cannot be allowed to lose it merely by reason of some temporary, often unavoidable, inability to pay up the rent immediately, and for this reason ejectment cannot be allowed as an ordinary process for the recovery of rent." The limitation for an application or suit for the recovery of arrears of rent will be three years. "When a tenant is ejected from his entire holding in execution of a decree or order of ejectment for arrears of rent, all arrears of rent in respect of such holding which fell due before the order of ejectment was passed shall be deemed to be satisfied." "No person shall at any time or in any way be liable to arrest or detention, whether by order or decree of any court or otherwise, on account of any sum recoverable under the provisions of this Act." The rate of interest on arrears of rent is proposed to be reduced from 12 to 6½ per cent.

The Bill sets aside the objections urged by Pandit Gobind Ballabh Pant against ejectment by notice instead of by suit when the Agra Tenancy Act of 1926 was under discussion and adopts the contentions that the then Government put forward in answering the

objections. The Pant Government now explains that the summary procedure of notice has been adopted "to obviate the necessity of bringing a suit, which only adds to the ultimate costs for payment by the tenant." This was precisely the reason that was adduced by Sir Sam O'Donnell in 1926, but it did not bring conviction to Mr. Pant then. Now he seems to be convinced that the reason, the validity of which he had refused to admit at the time, is really cogent. The procedure of ejection by notice does not obtain in Oudh even now; it obtained in Agra till 1901 but was abolished by the Act of 1901, to be revived later in 1926. The Oudh Rent Act, 1886, says: "A tenant having a right of occupancy in any land... shall not be ejected from that land otherwise than in execution of a decree for ejection." The Agra Tenancy Act, 1901, said: "A tenant, not being a permanent tenure-holder, shall be liable to ejection from his holding... on the ground that a decree against him or his predecessor in interest for arrears of rent in respect of that holding on account of any agricultural year remains unsatisfied at the expiry of that period." The practice of summary ejection was swept away in 1901, Mr. Pant said in 1926, because it "was harmful and gave rise to fraud and collusion." He denounced the practice as "of a highly prejudicial character." In fact, when speaking on the 1926 Bill, he enunciated spacious views about the forbearance which ought to be shown to tenants, but he seems to have discarded these views as impracticable now that he has to shoulder responsibility. It would be of some interest to recall what he said then:

This principle of ejection of a tenant for arrears of rent is by itself not quite a logical provision. Ordinarily when money is due by a person, then action is taken against him and his goods are distrained or he is otherwise dealt with, but his means of living are not confiscated. So far as the civil courts are concerned, under the Civil Procedure Code certain properties are altogether exempt from attachment. The policy of the law is that persons, so far as it can be helped, be so dealt with that they do not lose their means of living and the principle is a perfectly sound one, for if people are dealt with in such a manner that they are forced into vagabondism or vagrancy then it is dangerous to the State and harmful to the men concerned and causes immense loss to the family to which he belongs. I do admit that the tenants should ordinarily pay up the rents that are due by them in time, but the question is this: suppose a tenant does not pay up the rent in time, what is the penalty that should be imposed on him under the present Act?

It was rather unfortunate that he was out short by the President when he had gone so far on the ground that he was travelling beyond the immediate question in hand. Had he been allowed to enlarge on the subject, he would have laid more stress on what he had already said before, viz. that ejection itself was wrong, and that summary ejection was still more wrong. In the Pant Government's Bill, as in the 1926 Act, it is true that the summary procedure of ejection by notice would only apply to uncontested arrears, and that if the tenant contests the claim, the application for issue of notice would be deemed to be a suit for arrears of rent. But if the arrear claimed does not exceed Ra. 200, the tahsildar, under the new Bill as under the 1926 Act, would decide the suit him-

self, without forwarding it to the sub-divisional officer.

SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIOLOGY—II

II.

IN European countries and particularly in America, the need for family-case-work has been increasingly felt. Family counsel and marriage advice have been taken up as legitimate fields of social work. An increasing number of American youths of both sexes seek advice on problems connected with marriage—problems which relate to matters of heredity and health and to personality relationships. This demand for information and advice has naturally been made on the parish ministers and other social workers. In consequence there are, to-day, in America more than twenty family consultation centres and marriage guidance bureaus, and a number of ministers and social workers who combine this activity with their other professional work. Those who do take to this kind of work realise the end of a special study of the literature that deals with marriage and family which forms, perhaps, the most important section of sociological literature. A number of theological seminaries offer their students curricula containing courses on the family.

In India, social work, in relation to marriage in the shape of information and advice bureaus, can hardly be said to exist. Perhaps, as things go with us, marriage being almost entirely an affair between families, there is, at present, neither the scope nor the necessity for such bureau. In course of time, as marriage comes to be more and more regarded as an individual affair of the parties marrying, there would be need for such organisations with properly trained social workers. Such social workers, needless to say, will have to be equipped with a sound knowledge not only of Indian Sociology but also of general Sociology including Social Biology. One of their functions would be to help the rousing of the eugenic conscience of the youth of the country.

Even today, there is one aspect of Hindu marriage, which is a consequence of Hindu social organisation, which, to a Sociologist, appears to be in dire need of being attended to with organised social work. Here, I have in view Hindu endogamy, which is dictated by the caste-system. Whatever functions caste might have fulfilled, however socially and individually useful it might have been in the past, to-day the one outstanding characteristic that it shows is to act as a barrier to marriage between members of different castes and sub-castes. A general consensus of opinion seems to have been prevailing among our leaders of thought that the form in which the institution has been functioning during the last few centuries, has definitely proved harmful and antagonistic to the birth of a real community and nationality feeling. While a number of them have incessantly inveighed against caste, others have exhorted their brethren more positively on the need of freely mixing the blood of the Hindu population through inter-marriage between members of different castes or sub-castes. There

is unabiding feeling of unity (without sensed possibility of commingling of blood.

Inter-marriage between members of different castes or sub-castes, thanks to the labours of a number of Hindu reformers and legislators, is now a legal possibility. There are also not wanting young men and women, who would be ready to marry suitable mates irrespective of caste consideration, particularly, in the cities. Nay, there are even parents and guardians, who are willing to help their sons, daughters or wards, to find suitable partners in marriage from outside their caste or sub-caste. But whether it is the young and enthusiastic idealist or the middle-aged and sober rationalist, both alike find their desires in this respect baulked for want of a suitable machinery. In a society, where caste ideology is still dominating unabated, social intercourse is very largely circumscribed within caste or sub-caste units. Associations and Clubs, organised on modern lines, do bring together persons belonging to different castes in social and pleasurable activity. The circle of acquaintance formed in the course of this activity is generally confined exclusively either to males or to females. It very rarely extends to males and females and their family circle. These clubs and associations thus fail to create that close acquaintance between families which alone can provide scope for young men and women for making lifelong friendships. We think of community centres or units of local life to serve as channels for the satisfaction of the desire to come into close social contact with persons of different castes or sub-castes. But such centres are conspicuous by their absence. And units of local life tend to move in the grooves of caste. Educational institutions are rightly looked upon as breeding grounds of close friendships. These in India tend to be organised on a partial basis. Most of them are institutions either for males alone or for females alone. A few secondary schools and a number of Colleges, particularly in Bombay, are what are termed co-educational in the sense that both male and female students are admitted in them. Those, who have actual experience of these institutions, will agree that, as they are managed at present, there is very little room for cultivation of acquaintance between male and female students. As a matter of fact the two sides—male and female—tend to move in their own grooves.

It should be clear from the foregoing discussion, that the provision of facilities for coming into social contact for young men and women irrespective of caste, has assumed national importance, and yet, equally clearly, there is nothing in the existing institutions of the nation to supply this urgent need. Here, then, I as a student of Indian Sociology, submit, is an important field for organised social work. There is a great need for centres, run under the supervision of highly educated men and women of character working as social workers, where young men and women can go in their leisure hours for pleasurable exercise and recreation, and can have facilities for increasing their knowledge. It is in such centres that they would be able to cultivate suitable acquaint-

ances and form appropriate friendships, while spending their leisure hours in pleasurable and useful activity.

We have amongst us a number of groups called tribal castes such as Bhils, Katkaris, Waralis, Badagas, Tedas, Mundas, Oraons. Their cultures are in varying stages of assimilation with the main culture pattern of the Hindus round about them. Their problems are, therefore, special to them. Their assimilation or their preservation is a matter of larger policy. But, looking to the fact that a large element in the cultural pattern of popular Hinduism is so akin to some of the ideas and practices of these people, it appears to me that their natural course of evolution lies in their progressive assimilation with the Hindu population surrounding them. However that may be, it is evident to a student of Indian Sociology that a number of these tribes have, during centuries of culture-contact, lost or are losing their traditional means of gaining livelihood. They have tended to be partially dependent on the polity of their Indian brethren around them. In the social concourse and individual relationships, not infrequently, justice is denied to them. Here is another field for social work which is indicated by one's study of Indian Sociology.

The treatment of the so-called criminal tribes is another social problem with us. Some of these tribes appear to be, like the tribal castes referred to above, back-waters of civilization. To understand their mentality—and we must understand their mentality if we want to rehabilitate them to better ways of living—we must study the cultural pattern or patterns which has or have been superseded by the Hindu pattern of culture. Here, too, there is scope for social work by workers who have closely studied Indian Sociology.

Let me take for consideration a type of social work, which is not at all special to us, but is almost a universal feature of modern society. I mean, the social work, which has for its objective prophylaxis, diminution or prevention of prostitution. Female prostitution in India—here, I have in view mostly Hindu India—is a consequence of extremely complicated factors. There is, first of all the custom prevailing among some castes, of dedicating certain young girls to deities, such girls being forbidden to marry afterwards. The shrines of deities, moreover, generally have some males attached to them as hereditary dignitaries or officials. The peculiar customs of some of the castes, whereby prostitution of their females with males of certain superior castes is either condoned or connived at, must be borne in mind. There is the widespread phenomenon of young widowhood very often in intensely poor circumstances. Further, there are the peculiar circumstances of the family unit which is all-important in a society which is devoid of any other agency of sympathetic relief. It may be that the young widow, who is insensibly led to the path of prostitution, happens to have no other close relative to take sympathetic care of her or, worse still, happens to have a distant relative, who, according to the customs and sentiments of relationships prevailing among the Hindus, naturally comes

to be looked up as the saviour, and turns out to be a veritable devil. It may be that she happens to be the member of a joint family, and comes to be looked upon as an inauspicious woman, the cause of evil and misery to the family as the superstitious ideology goes. In such a group the young widow might find her life intolerable and may psychologically be ready to come under the influence of any soothsayer with whatever evil intentions. To add to all this, one has to bear in mind, the probability of village goondas, whether flourishing or destitute.

The general attitude towards woman prevailing among a large section of the Hindu population adds its own quota to the genesis of this problem. It is well known, that in a number of castes, girls are sold for marriage and wives have to be bought. Even among those castes, which sanction re-marriage of widows, a widow generally cannot marry outside her husband's family or outside the circle of his near kin. If she does so, she or her new husband has to pay a certain penalty. This chattel-concept of woman cannot have failed to contribute to the particular attitude towards sex, which strengthens the practice of prostitution. Over all this, is the popular conception of the doctrine of *Karma*. Fate and necessity for suffering in this life, when it comes, are the two categories of belief, which have enabled a large section of Hindu population to resign themselves to any course of life half willingly.

Social workers, working in the cause of diminution or extinction of prostitution, must have a clear knowledge of the complex belief, and customs, not only of the Hindus in general but even of specific castes in particular. The legislative action, that is necessary to achieve the end, has to be of a particular kind and not necessarily the same as has been taken in Europe and America. The preventive work too has to be informed with a special ideology besides that current in Europe and America in this kind of work. Some of the Indian social workers, working in this cause, being keen students of Hindu social life, have already seen the special requirements and have helped to forge appropriate laws.

G. G. GHURYE.

AGRICULTURAL INCOME-TAX IN BRITAIN AND KENYA.

IN view of the proposal to tax agricultural incomes in Bihar, a description of the mode in which such incomes are taxed in other countries might usefully be given here.

The British Income Tax Act has been a model for many countries. The Act is applicable to all incomes, and incomes from different sources are treated under separate schedules in the Act. The provisions relating to tax on real property and on agricultural incomes as a result of raising crops and the breeding of animals are dealt with under Schedule A and B of the Act. Under Schedule A incomes from lands, buildings and other sources are dealt with, and so it is popularly known as the "landlords' tax."

Under Schedule A the landlords are assessed to income-tax on the rent they receive for their lands or the rental value of the land or building if the owner himself is in occupation. Taxable income under this Schedule is determined after making deductions for repairs, maintenance, insurance and management up to 1/8 of the gross annual rental value. The landlord is entitled to deductions for loss of rent, annual charges in the shape of ground rent, interest on mortgage annuities and tithe rent charges. He is also entitled to relief in respect of loss caused to growing crops by flood or tempest and agricultural depression. The landlord is entitled to deduction for expenses incurred for the maintenance of sea wall and embankments against tidal rivers. This amount must not exceed the average of the previous 21 years.

Under Repairs and Maintenance are included the following items: structural repairs, inside and out; maintenance of all landlords' fixtures; outside painting and interior decoration necessary to maintain the existing character of the mansion, the maintenance, repairs and renewals of water supply, fire mains, lighting, heating drains, drives and gardens. Insurance includes premiums paid in respect of protection against loss by aircraft fire or storm on houses and buildings. Under management, legal charges for advice on matters arising in estate management, salaries of agents, staff and office expenses are included.

Under Schedule B, which deals with farmers' income, lands are classified under four groups for purposes of assessment:

1. Lands occupied for husbandry, that is farming.
2. Wood-lands.
3. Nurseries and Market Gardens.
4. Other lands.

The assessment of annual income of lands mainly used for farming, including pasturing, poultry farming, fruit farming and stud farming, is "an amount equal to the full annual value," that is to say, the yearly rent which the property will fetch if let on rent. In arriving at this figure, dwelling houses, buildings used as farm offices, and warehouses are exempt; but farm buildings other than the farm house are assessable to income-tax. Lands not used for farming are assessable at 1/3 the annual rental value. If in any year of farmer's income fell short of the assessable value, the actual income made by him would be taken as the basis for assessment. Similarly a farmer who sustains losses in farming is entitled under the Act to set off his loss in farming against income from other sources, whether earned or unearned.

The British Income-Tax Act makes it obligatory on the part of the farmer to keep proper accounts for substantiating his claims for adjustment against losses. The farmer may include in his expenditure the full rent and rates paid on the farm house, the depreciation charges on plant and machinery, and expenses incurred in replacing obsolete machinery. He can claim deductions in consideration of loss to his crops or stock due to tempest or flood. Where he happens to be a tenant, he can claim relief from

income tax to the extent that remission in rent is made by his landlord on account of agricultural depression.

In addition to these special concessions under the Schedules, every individual, whether a landlord or a farmer, is entitled to certain allowances and deductions irrespective of the total income. But in order to obtain these deductions the assessee must make a claim in the prescribed manner to an Inspector of taxes. A farmer whose income does not exceed £125 is exempt from income tax, but if his income is over £125 but less than £140, he is liable to pay income tax on one fifth of the amount by which the total income exceeds £125.

In the case of a husband and wife, incomes up to £180 are not taxed. If the wife earns an income of her own, four-fifths of such earned income is also free from tax. But this exemption extends only upto a sum of £45. For every child under 16 years of age a sum of £60 is allowed to be deducted from the assessment. A widower or widow or an unmarried person who employs a person as a house keeper is allowed a deduction of £50. In special cases a person is entitled to a deduction of £25 for maintaining incapacitated relatives. Where an old or infirm man depends on the services of a daughter who stays with him similar deduction is made.

Life insurance premiums up to 7 per cent. of the sum assured and 1/6 of the total taxable income from all sources are also allowed.

Lands occupied by a charity are exempt from income under Schedule B, provided the agricultural activities on that land are carried on by the beneficiaries of the charity and the profits applied exclusively for the purpose of charity.

In Britain income tax is levied on all incomes at a standard rate. The first portion of taxable income up to £135 is charged at a reduced rate. The incidence of the standard rate is four shillings and six pence, while the reduced rate on incomes up to £135 is only 1/3 of it, namely, one shilling and six pence only. Sur-tax is charged on all incomes over £2000 at a higher rate.

KENYA

Early last year the Legislative Council of Kenya passed an Income Tax Ordinance to raise a revenue of £43,5000 needed by the Government to meet its expenses. Profits from agricultural undertakings such as producing coconuts, tea, coffee and other products from palm trees and bushes are taxed under the Ordinance. Profits are ascertained by deducting all outgoings in the shape of interest paid on borrowed money employed in acquiring income, rent paid on lands and buildings, cost of replacing worn out plants and machinery after deducting the depreciation charges, cost of repairs on plant and machinery, cost of renewal or alteration of implements and bad debts.

Domestic or private expenses, expenses not exclusively spent for the purpose of acquiring income, income carried to reserve fund or capitalized, "any loss or expense recoverable under any insurances contract or indemnity", rent paid to premises not used for the purpose of producing the income and certain

other taxes are not entitled to deduction. When a farmer incurs loss in agriculture "that cannot be wholly set off against his income from other sources" for the same year, he is entitled to carry forward the loss and set off the loss against his chargeable income for the next five years in succession.

The farmers are entitled to special deductions. Stud farming and stock raising is an important feature of agriculture in Kenya, and farmers have to spend money on "dipping tanks" and on new fencing every year. On account of these they are entitled to deductions. Sisal hemp is a commercial crop and special concessions are given under the Ordinance for the rotation and replanting of sisal plantations. So also cost of measures for preventing soil erosions is allowed. The reason for allowing deductions for replanting and rotation of sisal hemp is that cultivators have been unable to carry on the rotation planting of this crop with the result that sisal plantations were completely neglected.

There was considerable opposition to the introduction of the Ordinance in the Legislative Council, but on the assurance of the Attorney General that he had taken care to see that each man in the country was allowed a living wage before his income was taxed, the Ordinance was passed, with practically no alterations.

The concessions allowed under the Ordinance in respect of sisal plantation amount to a subsidy for encouraging its cultivation. So also farm houses which are necessary for a farmer are exempt. In the case of "immature areas", that is, estates in which the trees planted are not fully mature or are not in full bearing, the initial cost of clearing, planting, etc., will be treated as capital and will not be charged to income. If the farmer suffers loss from the trees after they have begun to yield, he is permitted to deduct the loss from his income from other sources. Besides the deductions mentioned above the farmer is also entitled to deductions in respect of artificial manures or "reconditioning of the soil with chemicals".

There are certain personal allowances to which all assesseees under the Ordinance are entitled to. An individual is entitled to a deduction of £350 as his personal allowance in ascertaining his taxable income. Similarly the wife of an assessee is entitled to £150 and children under the age of 16 are entitled to an allowance and a child over 16 years of age studying in a University or College or undergoing apprentice course in trades is entitled to an allowance of £75. But an assessee cannot under any circumstances claim in all more than £250 as allowance for his children.

The usual insurance premiums equal to 1/6 of the assessable income are entitled to deduction.

The rates of income tax in Kenya are lower than the rates in Britain. They are given below.

For every pound of the first £700	1 sh.
For every pound of the next £500	1 sh. 6 d.
For every pound of the next £1,500	2 sh.
For every pound of the remainder of the chargeable income.	2 sh. 6 d.

As the Kenya Government has introduced income tax in the Colony for the first time, it has been very careful and cautious in drafting the Ordinance so as not to affect violently the vested interests. Perhaps as people become accustomed to the Ordinance, the Government of Kenya will gradually extend the Ordinance to incomes which are now not touched by it. It is not the design of this article that either the British system, or the Kenya system of tax on agricultural incomes should be adopted in India wholesale. The system of taxation on agricultural incomes may have to be worked out in conformity with conditions in India. The standard of life in India is not as high as in Britain or Kenya. Therefore there is no justification in India for the large number of deductions provided for in the two countries. In this respect, the deductions provided for under the Bihar Bill seem to us to meet the Indian conditions, though as was suggested in these columns last week the taxable limit of Rs. 5000 appears to be too high a figure. But we may with advantage copy two features from the systems of the two countries. 1. Our farmers should be asked to maintain regular farm accounts in a standardised form to be prepared by the agricultural department. 2. Farmers may be allowed deductions on premiums paid by them for insuring crops and cattle against fire, storm, flood, and cattle diseases and drought. The limit of such insurance may be fixed after proper investigation of the matter.

The personal allowances and deductions allowed in the two countries for dependents, and wife are, in our opinion unnecessary in India, as the taxable limit of Rs. 2000 under the Indian Income tax act, provides sufficient margin for an assessee to meet such liabilities. Such concessions if extended will lead to abuses, and the question of determining who are the legitimate dependents and how many of such dependents are entitled to allowances are matters which bristles with difficulties. The question of allowance of children stands on a different footing. The cost of education, maintenance and other expenses no doubt reduces the taxable capacity of an assessee, and he must be given some relief. Then the question arises. What amount, can an assessee claim as allowance and for how many children? Perhaps it will be reasonable to allow a graded allowance from Rs. 100 to Rs. 250 a year for each child up to 4 children, below 21 years of age if they are studying. The necessary gradations will have to be worked out.

S. R. V.

Reviews.

BRIGHTER VILLAGES.

A SCHEME OF RURAL RECONSTRUCTION.

By A. B. MANDE. (Ram Narain Lal, Allahabad.)
1938. 18cm. 116p. Aa. 8.

MANY publications appear on rural reconstruction and that is a sign of the greater interest of the public in rural affairs. The author with his good experience gives an elaborate scheme. His theme is for the resuscitation of the village Panchayat with all its

old powers, with added jurisdictions to suit modern conditions. The Panchayat has to control, plan and administer the entire rural life in all its aspects. All the economic, social and administrative spheres; primary education, adult education, sanitation and medical aid for both men and cattle, co-operative credit and marketing, arbitration of civil and criminal cases, planning of the village, provision of drinking and irrigation, water sources, maintenance of roads and public utilities, and grazing grounds all these are to be controlled and managed by the village panchayat. In fact these village organisations are expected to have all the social activities of the full grown municipalities in addition to economic reorganisation and judicial functions. A panel of arbitrators, from among whom the parties will chose their own judges sitting with some laymen will conduct cases before a village audience and be often assisted by them. The nominal fees for instituting cases will be Re. 1/- for a case and the maximum fine imposed will be Rs. 50. Government according to the author are to give from 5 to 10 per cent of land revenue to these village organisations which will be allowed to raise their own revenues from *fashi chanda* of five seers of grain on every plough, donations, the profits of co-operative societies and contributions of manual labour. Such village organisations of 75 to 150 families are grouped into a union, and a district has to contain many such unions. The village Guide—the officer of the village organisation, the Sarpanch of the Union and the Rural Development officer of the District are the paid officials who are expected to carry on this scheme. The Guide will get from Rs. 9 to 12 and the Sarpanch Rs. 30 a month. The Union headquarter and the District headquarters are to be the headquarter centres of many of the activities of these organisations. The vernacular high schools at Union Headquarters and the other educational organisations are all suited to the rural atmosphere and are connected with the general work of rural reconstruction. The Co-operative movement will also be reorganised as to give more voice in the management for rural interest, and the village organisations will strive in a short period of time at financial self sufficiency. A compulsory deposit to be contributed by the member will in course of time form the necessary capital needed by the individual. The depositor gets 3% but if he borrows he has to pay only 1% as the Secretary's fees. The author in the chapter on primary education and on village library lays insistence on the necessity for inculcating the rural bias, and suits it to rural conditions by allowing children over 10 to attend the night schools for continuing their education.

The scheme seems to be very attractive at the outset. The scheme does not seem to tackle the fundamental problem of rural life—poverty—and no suggestion to augment the resources of the villagers has been given. The distribution of agricultural yield, the burden Government demands, over dependence on agriculture are the problems which have to be properly solved before any rural reconstruction is possible and the author has not attempted to deal with any of these. This is a scheme to engage a few leisured men, to employ a few unemployed and to do a little patch work. Economic progress and that at a tremendous rate will reconstruct rural life much better than any of these schemes. Even these small attempts fail due to want of generous help from Government. The author expects too much of his officers in the scheme. The village guide on Rs. 9 or 12 and the Sarpanch on Rs. 30 are expected to be paragons. The idea of compulsory deposit however good it might seem has been found unworkable in many areas. The idea of allowing a boy of

10 and above to attend the night school so that he might assist his family in farm work also has to be objected. The present benefit might offset too much the growth of the coming generation. The library sets instead of being published and sold by individual concerns should be distributed by the Government at a nominal cost.

The scheme has an air of practicality about it and should be effective as far as it goes. The author deserves commendation on this timely publication.

N. S. S.

THE NEW DESPOTISM.

THE KING, THE CONSTITUTION, THE EMPIRE AND FOREIGN AFFAIRS. LETTERS AND ESSAYS, 1936-37. By A. BERRIEDALE KEITH. (Oxford University Press,) 1938. 23cm. 194 p. 8/6.

BROUGHT together in this volume are essays and letters written by Dr. Keith during 1936-37 on important topics of the day. They touch on various problems arising out of the application of the Statute of Westminster, 1931, such as the relations between the United Kingdom and the Dominions, and the position of the Crown in relation to the latter. A section is devoted to India and Burma which is of special interest to Indian readers as it gives an authoritative opinion on the action of the British authorities in refusing to grant assurances demanded by the Congress as a condition for acceptance of office. Dr. Keith is of opinion that "the demand made by Congress was, on the face of it, not improper". He justly criticises the formation of interim ministries and remarks that "the forms of responsible government should not be misused to conceal its breakdown".

Another interesting point is to be found in Dr. Keith's view, supported by facts, that Mr. Baldwin's regime as Prime Minister was a period of the deliberate aggrandizement of that office 'at the cost of the King and Commons alike.' The New Despotism is thus fast becoming a normal feature of the British constitution challenging both the sovereignty of Parliament and the Rule of Law as interpreted by Dicey.

The second part of the book is concerned with foreign affairs. Dr. Keith points out how it is becoming difficult in view of the assertion of Dominion autonomy in international relations to have a common foreign policy for the Empire. The Special significance of European affairs for the United Kingdom makes it imperative, according to Dr. Keith, to develop a regional British policy in regard to Europe. Professor Keith notes with regret the progressive abandonment of obligations under the League Covenant by Great Britain which has, inter alia, destroyed the chance of evolving an Empire foreign policy. He takes the instance of Spain to emphasise how respect for international law is on the decline and lays its share of responsibility in this behalf at the door of the British Foreign Office.

In a collection of occasional writings such as this it is not possible to find that organic unity which characterises a treatise. Yet through each one of the fragments included in this book there is discernible a continuous thread which gives the volume an appearance of wholeness. That thread is, of course, the viewpoint of the author. Dr. Keith regards his subjects principally from the standpoint of a constitutional lawyer. But he does not interpret law in a narrow, formal sense. The spirit is as important as the word, a principle of interpretation which no student of British constitutional law can afford to ignore without impairing his understanding. When,

therefore, Dr. Keith says in connection with the Abdication Episode of December, 1936 that "Legal power and constitutional right are very different things", his words have a far wider application. Do we not know how often in this country the legality of an act has been confused with its constitutionality? Indeed, as recent events in the Provinces have shown, the distinction between what is *permissible* and what is *right* has not been fully appreciated even by distinguished publicists. To them as to others, Dr. Keith's pertinent comments on many important constitutional questions embodied in this book will be of great value. For they are valuable not only as a contribution to the clarification of specific issues but—and what is more important—as an illustration of the method of approach to those issues.

S. V. K.

INDIAN BANKING

BANKING IN INDIA. BY S. G. PANANDIKAR. (2nd Edn.) (Longmans, Bombay.) 1937. 22cm. 365p. Rs. 6.

THIS book which has already established itself as an indispensable text-book for students of commerce and banking in Indian Universities is now offered in a revised edition re-written and brought up-to-date. The scope of the book is mainly descriptive and it is an eminent success from that point of view. The author has taken enormous pains to summarise the mountainous pile of reports and evidence produced by the Central and Provincial Banking Enquiry Committees and he has classified all the relevant arguments under appropriate sections. All the constituent parts of Indian Banking are included in its comprehensive scope from Nidhis and Chit-funds to the exchange banks and the Reserve bank. Special mention must be made of the chapter on 'the Financing of Industries,' information about which is comparatively scarce in the text books on Indian banking. The treatment is as analytical as the scope is comprehensive and as a picture of Indian banking at a cross-section of time it is by far the best book we have on the subject.

If it is such a success regarded as a cross-section picture, it is not altogether free from the restrictions which such a scope necessarily engenders. For instance hardly any attempt is made to discuss principle or policy, except in a meagre and indirect way, and in this way the fact-crammed grandeur of the book is made somewhat bald. In the section on the Reserve Bank, although the various sets of recommendations made prior to the framing of its constitution are incorporated, hardly any attempt is made to offer a critical appraisal of the constitution as it finally emerged; and though the Bank has issued a good few reports on the different aspects of its work since its start no attempt is made to assess the value of its policy as revealed therein. So also the sections on Treasury Bills and government loans are good enough in their factual content, but it is a matter for doubt whether an understanding of their bearing on the money market or the banking institutions would be either complete or useful without the proper perspective of policy and a knowledge of the manner in which these have been utilised. Similarly the section on 'debt conciliation and liquidation' (which by the by is treated as part of the chapter on 'Co-operative and Land Mortgage banks', whereas it would have been more appropriate in the chapter on 'Money-Lenders and Indigenous Banks') give some facts connected with this issue, but does not discuss either the efficacy of conciliation as a solution for rural indebtedness or the other issues connected with conciliation like the degree of compulsion necessary, its reactions

on credit, and the nature of experience gained in its working (especially in the C.P.) and so on. Of course it must be admitted that these are matters relating to the scope of the treatment where differences of opinion are possible; and what might appear to be indispensable from one point of view may have to be discarded when viewed from another angle. But the book is on the whole a very useful contribution to the range of text-books on one of the important branches of Indian Economics.

P. S. NARAYANA PRASAD.

SHORT NOTICES.

EAST AND WEST CONFLICT OR CO-OPERATION? Ed. by BASIL MATTHEWS. (Student Christian Movement Press.) 1936. 20cm. 206p. 3/6.

THE book is a compilation of nine essays in which several leaders of youth came together to pool their experiences in order to judge for themselves and their generation the results of the impact of new and overwhelming pagan forces, creeds and movements. They come from many countries and the compiler wanted them to be as representative of the various communities as possible. Several failed to send in their contributions on account of their preoccupations and this has undoubtedly made the book a little less attractive than it would have been.

Many of them have direct experience of actual missionary and philanthropic work among young men of various countries and have a strong Christian bias. This has not however, materially affected their broad outlook, though it has given something of a predominance to one aspect than to the other. The influence exerted by the West upon the science, arts, and religion of the East has come in for a more exhaustive treatment than the counter influences of the East upon the West. The political and economic influences have not escaped the contributors' notice and a fairly comprehensive survey of the conflicts between the East and the West is the result.

Whether these conflicts are insoluble except by a destructive process in which one or the other must be annihilated or whether they are a temporary phase ultimately resolvable into a mutually advantageous synthesis is too great a problem to receive more than a passing notice in so small a book. The authors hope for the best and that is where the reader wishes to agree. Where there is a possibility of difference is whether Christianity, with all its greatness, would be a sufficiently powerful force to achieve the goal or whether some genuinely and predominantly Eastern idea will have to be called in to supplement the power of Christ. Whatever that may be, the book is undoubtedly an earnest attempt to study the problem.

R. H. KELKAR.

NOTE ON SALES OF GOLD AND ORNAMENTS IN 120 PUNJAB VILLAGES. FROM OCTOBER 1, 1931 TO DECEMBER 31, 1933. The Board of Economic Inquiry. Punjab, Lahore.) 1936. 26cm. 44p. As. 8.

THIS small pamphlet published by the Board of Economic Inquiry, Punjab, serves at least the useful purpose of showing some of inner facts about the sale of gold in our villages. The aim of the inquiry undertaken by the Board was "to find out whether the gold being sold... was in order to take advantage of its appreciated value or to liquidate commitments which a lowered income due to the fall in prices

failed to meet." This small pamphlet shows clearly what were the circumstances which compelled the Punjab peasants to sell or pawn their gold and the methods by which this was done.

As is to be expected the sale of gold was more considerable than the pawning of gold as pawning implies ability to redeem the gold pawned. It is not shown conclusively what has been the effect of the rise in the price of gold on its sales apart from the general fact that rising prices of this commodity offered sufficient inducement to those whom necessity had already forced to make up their minds to sell. Some of the evidence collected shows that the rise in the price of gold was only a contributory cause, the impelling motive of the sale of gold being sheer necessity.

The objects to which the sale proceeds of gold are devoted give some indication of the fact that gold was sold not with a view to make profits but because of sheer necessity. And it is significant to note that the necessity of payment of land revenue (together with water rates) was much more frequently mentioned as the cause of the sale of gold than the repayment of old debts although the repayment of Sahukari debts figures as the most important single item to which the proceeds of gold were devoted.

This "Note" throws some interesting side-light on certain aspects of Indian social life and customs. It tries to deal also with such problems as to why the agriculturist sell gold more readily than non-agriculturists under similar circumstances, how the villager is cheated in the selling of his gold etc.

D.

COCHIN CALLING: A GUIDE BOOK TO COCHIN. (The Publicity officer, Government of Cochin, Ernakulam.) 1938. 20 cm. 64 p. As. 8.

THIS guide book is published under the authority of the Government of Cochin. It deals with the physical features, history, Government, the people, trade, culture, art and life of the people of this palm-fringed, almost water-skirt little State of Cochin. There are short accounts of the arts of Kerala like Kathakali, Tullal, etc. The book is well got up with illustrations and is bound to be helpful to visitors to Cochin.

S. R. V.

BRITAIN IS PAWNED! By VINCENT PANTIN. (King.) 1937. 20cm. 114p. 5/-

THIS book professes to be an attempt to solve the problems of unemployment and exploitation without interfering with individual effort to earn profits under private enterprise. The author does not consider it necessary to alter the present monetary and banking systems in order to abolish unemployment. He, however, holds that it would be advisable to maintain the present price level stable by State control. This he would do by means of a plan comparable with the well-known plan elaborated by Irving Fisher in his book *Stabilizing the Dollar*. The scheme outlined is based upon an index showing the extent of rise or fall of prices to be rectified by decreasing or increasing the quantity of money in circulation. The scheme is to be worked in conjunction with a system of bonds carrying a varying rate of interest but with capital value fixed at parity. The bond owner is to have the right to demand cash in national currency. The bonds would be cancelled with the issue of Treasury notes, as notes would be cancelled with the issue of bonds. The interest rate on the bonds is to be varied as required in order to main-

tain currency at just the level necessary for keeping prices at the predetermined index. In the opinion of the author unemployment is due to lack of equilibrium between saving and spending. He proposes a system of redistributive taxation to prevent over-saving. He would increase death duties and impose annual taxation upon capital values but take care not to tax the consumer. Consumption necessarily lags behind production in a community loaded with an excessive amount of national debt. "The State, which is now a mortgagor, should retrieve its position by building up an annual budgetary surplus in the form of a loan fund until it becomes a mortgagee thereby destroying spurious capital values and bringing down the sum of interest, i. e. unearned incomes to zero". The present reviewer confesses that time and again he has been stumped for sheer lack of comprehension in reading this book. It is a challenging book. It challenges you to understand it, if you can. And even when you succeed in understanding it is rarely that you feel you can agree with it.

G. B. JATHAR.

MONEY AND THE MACHINE AGE. BY T. W. WYATT. (King.) 1937, 20cm. 120p. 2/6.

IN the opinion of the author the problem of production has been solved. All that is now wanted to create heaven on earth is a monetary system properly adapted to the needs of the modern world. The author enters into an examination of post-war monetary history and derives from the examination what he considers to be the perfect monetary policy which will abolish poverty and unemployment. Government must reduce taxation and rely on the increased spending power thus released to improve trade and through it the tax revenue. To enable the enormously increased productive capacity of the machine to be utilised, increased purchasing power is to be created by all possible means, so that it is spread over all classes of the community. The increase must be regulated so that such production as is available is absorbed. An Economic Advisory Committee and a special Economic and Statistical Department should be set up to deal with production and consumption. Both of which must be regulated and controlled. A planned economy is not only desirable but, under present circumstances, inevitable. But it is possible so to plan as to give the individual much more freedom than he enjoys at present. The Government and the Bank of England between them control British currency policy and with it the rate of interest and the amount of taxation, consequently they can determine the level of prices and incomes. A survey of the whole country should be undertaken with the object of improving its efficiency in every possible way. Drainage, roads, railways, aerodromes, houses, shipping, docks etc. all stand in need of improvement. Smoke could be abolished, roads turned into parkways and towns could be replanned and made beautiful and all this enterprise could be made to yield handsome dividends.

All these things could be done if only we had the money, and if Government and the Bank of England join hands, the money needed could easily be created and there would then be nothing to prevent us from marching on from the present state of poverty and squalor to higher wages, higher salaries and more leisure, more savings and a healthier and fuller life for all.

The author's moral urge must compel admiration but he is the owner of certain panaceas and fixed ideas and most readers will get up from the reading of the book, sceptical and unconvinced.

G. B. JATHAR.

THE PRICE OF LIBERTY. A GERMAN ON CONTEMPORARY BRITAIN. BY ADOLF LOWE. (Day to Day Pamphlets, No. 36.) [Hogarth Press.] 1937. 18cm. 44p. 1/6.

THE book is in the form of a letter to Prof. Tillich and the author uses the occasion of the former's 50th birthday, to review their common fight for freedom of thought in Germany and their failure in the face of the Nazis and the Communists.

He thus touches upon one of the most central problems of present-day international politics but instead of directly attacking the problem he tries to contrast the position on the continent with the continued success of democracy in England and proceeds to offer a sociological analysis of the Englishman's national character so far as such an abstraction is capable of any close study.

The letter-form makes it difficult to achieve a scientific exactitude but the success achieved is so great that even Englishmen might envy it. The foreigner can always have the advantage of an objective and unprejudiced study and it is such a study of the history of England that enables the author to bring out the peculiar circumstances that have helped Englishmen to develop a successful democracy. They have developed a 'code of common decency and fairness'. Equality amongst them 'has not disintegrated the social structure' so far and the individual spontaneously reacts to society and the interests maintaining it.

But bold critics have come forward to challenge the smug satisfaction of the Englishman and the question is raised whether English society can survive the shock of present-day conflicts.

To us in India, who are taking the first steps towards democracy, such a study by a dispassionate foreigner will not fail to be of great use.

R. H. KELKAR.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

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